



The effect of SiO₂ on a novel CeO₂–WO₃/TiO₂ catalyst for the selective catalytic reduction of NO with NH₃



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ABSTRACT

A series of novel catalyst complexes for the selective catalytic reduction of NO_x to NH₃ were prepared by doping CeO₂–WO₃/TiO₂ with different loadings of SiO₂. The complexes were synthesized by impregnating P25 with colloidal silica to form a complex support. The NO_x conversion values and the calculated reactive rate constants confirm that the presence of SiO₂ increased the reaction activity at low temperatures. This increase in activity may be directly correlated to the increase in the presence of unstable Brønsted acid sites as well as active nitrite, monodentate nitrates and adsorbed NO₂, as opposed to an increase in the BET surface area and a change in the redox properties. Furthermore, the surface bridging and bidentate nitrate species that originated from the adsorption of NO_x were quite stable and inactive below 300 °C. Finally, both Ti(1)Si(0) and Ti(3)Si(1) catalysts were employed to study the reaction mechanism by in situ IR spectroscopy at 200 °C. The two catalysts exhibited similar reaction mechanisms, wherein the Lewis and Brønsted acid sites reacted with active nitrite, monodentate nitrates and adsorbed NO₂ species.

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1. Introduction

Nitrogen oxide species (NO_x) emitted from automobile exhaust gas and the industrial combustion of fossil fuels are major air pollutants. The selective catalytic reduction (SCR) of NO_x to form NH₃ is an effective technique for the reduction of NO_x from diesel exhaust or coal-fired power plants. In industry, the most widely employed SCR catalyst is V₂O₅–WO₃/TiO₂, which is effective in a relatively narrow temperature window of 300–400 °C [1,2]. Despite its widespread use, several problems have been associated with this catalyst system: the environmental toxicity of vanadium species, the high activity for the oxidation of SO₂ to SO₃, and the low N₂ selectivity at high temperatures due to N₂O formation [3,4]. Therefore, many researchers are working on developing new catalysts to avoid the challenges discussed above.

Recently, catalysts without vanadium have been extensively studied, such as transition metal Fe, Mn and Cu oxides supported on TiO₂ or ZrO₂ [3,5–7], as well as Fe and Cu exchanged zeolites [8,9]. Moreover, as an important catalyst support, ceria and ceria-containing materials have been widely applied as co-catalysts or structural promoters of heterogeneous catalytic reactions because of their excellent reducibility and remarkable oxygen storage capability [10]. Qi et al. [11] developed MnO_x–CeO₂ catalysts by different synthetic methods and obtained catalysts with favorable activities

for NO_x reduction at low temperature. Wu et al. [12] compared the SCR performance of Mn–Ce catalysts supported on TiO₂ and Al₂O₃. The results demonstrated that different styles of acid sites (Lewis acidity predominant on Mn–Ce/Ti and Brønsted acidity major on Mn–Ce/Al) were responsible for the different activity regions and reaction mechanisms. He et al. [13] investigated the SO₂ deactivation on Ce/TiO₂ catalyst and its stability in the presence of H₂O, CO₂ and C₃H₆ [14]. In our previous studies [15–18], the CeO₂–WO₃ or CeO₂–WO₃/TiO₂ (Ce–W/Ti) catalysts exhibited favorable SCR performance above 200 °C and increased the activity window of the traditional V₂O₅–WO₃/TiO₂. In addition, this system exhibited better resistance to SO₂ and alkali metals at high temperatures. However, the synthetic methods for the preparation of these catalysts involve either co-precipitation or sol–gel reactions, which are not favorable for industrial catalyst preparation. As a structural promoter, SiO₂ mixed with TiO₂ for vanadia based catalysts is a common method in industry owing to its large BET surface area, remarkable surface acidity and structural strength of SCR monolith catalyst. At the same time, studies on the chemical tuning of the non-vanadium based catalysts are quite rare [19–21]. To improve the applicability of this Ce–W/Ti catalyst, it is necessary to investigate the effect of SiO₂ on Ce–W/Ti catalysts.

This paper investigates the influences of SiO₂ on the Ce–W/Ti catalyst prepared with different Ti to Si ratios using the industrially relevant impregnation method. For this purpose, both the physical and chemical characteristics of Ce–W/Ti–Si catalysts and their SCR performance under a high gas hourly space velocity (GHSV) were investigated.

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2. Experimental

2.1. Catalyst preparation

The traditional and SiO₂ doped catalysts were prepared by the impregnation method. Specific amounts of ammonium paratungstate and cerium nitrate were mixed in an oxalic acid solution followed by the impregnation of specific amounts of TiO₂ (P25) and SiO₂ (30 wt% colloidal silica, Aldrich). The mixture was stirred for 2 h, dried overnight at 120 °C and then calcined at 500 °C for 5 h in static air. The active component of CeO₂ and WO₃ was 10 wt%. A catalyst denoted as Ti(x)Si(y) indicates that the mass ratio of TiO₂ and SiO₂ is x:y.

2.2. Catalytic performance

Activity measurements were performed in a fixed-bed quartz reactor (inner diameter 9 mm) using 100 mg of catalyst with a 40–60 mesh. The feed gas mixture contained 500 ppm NO, 500 ppm NH₃ (500 ppm SO₂ when employed), 3% O₂, and the balance of N₂. The total flow rate of the feed gas was 200 cm³/min and the GHSV was approximately 120,000 cm³ g⁻¹ h⁻¹. The concentrations of inlet and outlet gases were continually monitored by an FTIR spectrometer (Gasmeter DX-4000). Activity data were recorded when the reaction reached a steady state after 30 min at each temperature.

To further evaluate the catalytic activity, kinetic parameters for the NO conversion were calculated according to the following equation:

$$k = -\frac{V}{W} \times \ln(1 - x) \quad (1)$$

where k is the reaction rate constant (cm³ g⁻¹ s⁻¹), V is the total gas flow rate (cm³ s⁻¹), W is the mass of catalysts in the reactor, and x is subscript in NO_x. The equation is based on the theory that the reaction is first-order with respect to NO and zero-order with respect to NH₃ [2].

2.3. Catalyst characterization

The BET surface area of the samples was evaluated using a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 apparatus. The crystal structure was determined using an X-ray diffractometer (XRD) (Rigaku, D/max-2200/PC) operating at 30 kV and 30 mA using CuK α radiation. The structure of WO₃ was examined by micro-Raman spectroscopy (Renisaw, InVia) under the excitation with a 532 nm⁻¹ laser.

The temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) of NH₃ or NO (NO + O₂) was performed using a chemisorption analyzer (Micromeritics, ChemiSorb 2720 TPx). For temperature-programmed reduction of H₂, the sample was placed under a 10% H₂/Ar gas flow at a rate of 10 °C/min up to 900 °C; for TPD, the sample first exposed on a 500 ppm NH₃/He (NO/He) gas flow for 1 h, allowed to undergo isothermal desorption under He for 30 min, and then desorbed under a He gas flow at a rate of 10 °C/min up to 600 °C. The gas flow was set to 50 cm³/min. Each sample was pre-treated at 300 °C in He for 1 h prior to testing.

In situ DRIFTS spectra were recorded on a Fourier transform infrared spectrometer (FTIR, Nicolet NEXUS 870) equipped with a SMART collector and an MCT detector cooled by liquid N₂. Diffuse reflectance measurements were performed in situ in a high temperature cell equipped with a ZnSe window. The catalyst was heated to 350 °C under N₂ at a total flow rate of 100 cm³/min for 1 h to remove any adsorbed impurities. The background spectrum was recorded in a flowing N₂ atmosphere and was subtracted from the sample spectra. The DRIFTS spectra were recorded by accumulating 100 scans with a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization of the catalysts

The BET surface areas of Ti(x)Si(y) catalysts prepared using different Ti:Si ratios as well as their corresponding pore volumes and average pore diameters are provided in Table 1. With increasing SiO₂ to Ti ratio, a remarkable increase in the BET surface area and the pore volume were observed, whereas the average pore diameters remained nearly unchanged. The XRD patterns of the Ti(x)Si(y) catalysts are provided in Fig. 1(a). The increase in SiO₂ loadings did not influence the peak locations or the phase transition from anatase to rutile of TiO₂; rather, they reduced the main peak intensity of TiO₂ anatase (1 0 1), corresponding to a decrease in the lower crystallinity of TiO₂. Furthermore, the weak cubic fluorite phase of CeO₂ (1 1 1) can also be observed in the catalysts.

Due to the weak Raman signals of SiO₂ and strong TiO₂ and CeO₂ Raman signals at relatively low wavenumber (less than 700 cm⁻¹), it is possible to obtain structural information about the WO₃ component by the Raman spectroscopy. The results are provided in Fig. 1(b). The peak located at 794 cm⁻¹ is attributed to the micro-crystalline WO₃ bonds and the shoulder centered at 992 cm⁻¹ is due to the W=O stretching mode [22]. With increasing SiO₂ content, the peak at 794 cm⁻¹ remains present in all samples with the exception of the Ti(0)Si(1) sample. In contrast, the shoulder associated with this peak exhibits a blue shift to a lower wavenumber, which may be indicative of a slight increase in the W=O bond length at high SiO₂ loadings or an increase in BET surface area. The results indicate that doping with SiO₂ does not significantly distort the surface structure of WO₃. For the Ti(0)Si(1) catalyst, the peak at 794 cm⁻¹ disappeared and was replaced by a new peak at 955 cm⁻¹ (amorphous WO₃). Similar results have been proposed by Xia et al. who have studied the surface and catalytic properties of WO₃/TiO₂ catalysts [23]. They propose that the main WO_x species present in SiO₂ calcined at 500 °C include amorphous WO₃, in which the W–O–Si bonds played a key role in promoting the oxidation reaction. Overall, these results confirm that doping with SiO₂ increases the BET surface area of the catalysts, enhancing the dispersions of active component WO_x species rather than varying the phase structures of CeO₂ on a TiO₂ support.

3.2. Catalytic activity

Fig. 2 illustrates the SCR activity of Ti(x)Si(y) catalysts prepared using different Ti:Si ratios under a relatively high GHSV of

Table 1
BET surface area (S_{BET}), pore volume (V_{p}), average pore diameter (D_{p}), reaction rate constant (k) at 200 °C and Lewis and Brønsted acidities at 100 °C.

	S_{BET} (m ² /g)	V_{p} (cc/g)	D_{p} (nm)	k (cm ³ g ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	$10k/S_{\text{BET}}$ (cm ³ m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	Lewis acidity	Brønsted acidity
Ti(1)Si(0)	54.3	0.23	12.5	3.19	0.59	6.01	5.03
Ti(3)Si(1)	85.3	0.47	13.0	14.38	1.68	2.59	9.42
Ti(1)Si(1)	100.4	0.59	12.6	8.43	0.84	1.99	10.68
Ti(1)Si(3)	160.5	0.58	12.6	7.65	0.48	1.76	11.33
Ti(0)Si(1)	159.4	0.55	12.5	5.40	0.34	2.29	12.61

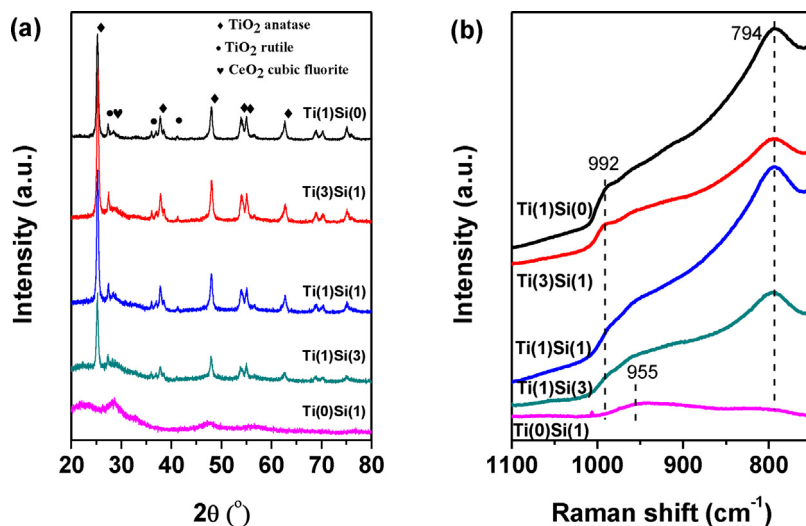


Fig. 1. (a) XRD profiles and (b) Raman spectra of the Ti(x)Si(y) (CeO₂–WO₃/TiO₂–SiO₂) catalysts.

120,000 cm³ g⁻¹ h⁻¹. Doping with SiO₂ improved the NO_x conversion below 300 °C, resulting in the following activity sequence: Ti(3)Si(1) > Ti(1)Si(1) > Ti(1)Si(3) > Ti(0)Si(1) > Ti(1)Si(0) at 250 °C. However, when the temperature increased above 400 °C, the Si-containing catalysts exhibited low activity compared with Ti(1)Si(0). The results reveal that SiO₂ enhances the NO_x conversion of Ce–W/Ti catalyst at medium or low temperatures. At the elevated temperature region, doping with SiO₂ suppresses the activity of SCR reaction. An earlier study of V₂O₅/TiO₂–SiO₂ by Kobayashi et al. also reported similar conclusions [19]. The authors attributed this high temperature inhibition effect to the dispersion of vanadia on the support. In this study, the activities of Ti(x)Si(y) under 60,000 cm³ g⁻¹ h⁻¹ were tested and the profiles (shown in the supporting information (SI)) exhibit a similar pattern from 150 to 450 °C. Among the SiO₂-containing catalysts, the Ti(3)Si(1) catalyst exhibited the highest SCR activity and the broadest reactivity window. In addition, NH₃ conversion and the selectivity to N₂ were also examined in this study (Figure S2), and the results reveal that no N₂O was detected.

The reaction rate constant *k* was calculated for the catalysts at 200 °C (Table 1) based on the equation 1, which excludes the influence of mass and heat transfer, where the NO conversion was below 40%. Doping with SiO₂ enhanced the SCR activity and Si-rich catalysts exhibited lower NO_x reduction than Ti-rich catalysts, where

the Ti(3)Si(1) catalyst exhibited the highest reaction rate. The influence of the BET surface area was taken into account by calculating the per area (*k*/S_{BET}) constants. The constant for the Ti(1)Si(0) catalyst was less than that of Ti(3)Si(1) and Ti(1)Si(1) catalysts but greater than the Ti(1)Si(3) and the Ti(0)Si(1) samples.

For the Ti(3)Si(1), the GHSV tolerance as well as the SO₂ and H₂O resistance are shown in Fig. 3. The SCR activity of the catalysts decreased when the GHSV increased from 60,000 to 500,000 cm³ g⁻¹ h⁻¹. The highest activity region was between 300

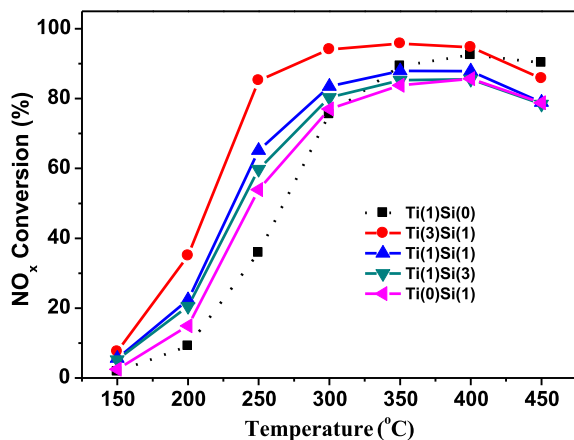


Fig. 2. The SCR performance of Ti(x)Si(y) catalysts. Reaction conditions: catalyst = 100 mg, [NO] = [NH₃] = 500 ppm, [O₂] = 3%, total flow rate = 200 cm³/min, GHSV = 120,000 cm³ g⁻¹ h⁻¹.

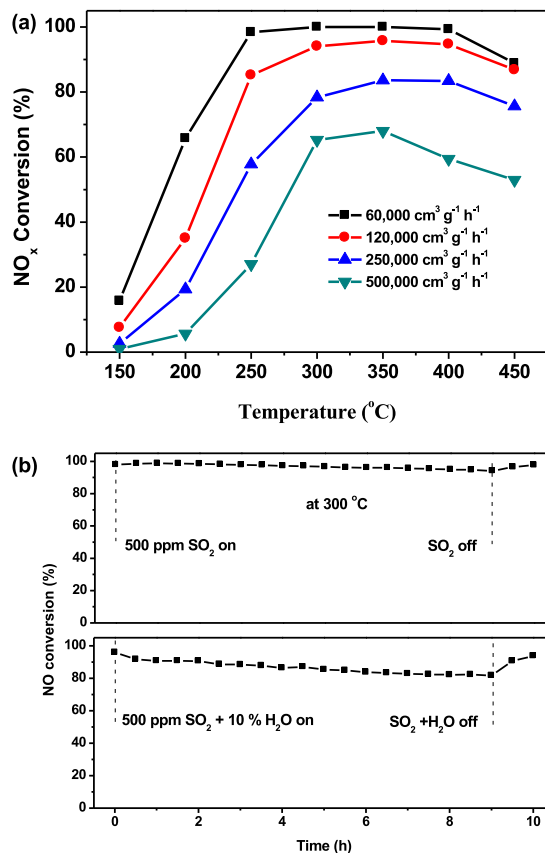


Fig. 3. (a) The NO_x conversion of Ti(3)Si(1) catalyst under different GHSV conditions. (b) The SO₂ and H₂O durability of the Ti(3)Si(1) catalyst at 300 °C under 120,000 cm³ g⁻¹ h⁻¹.

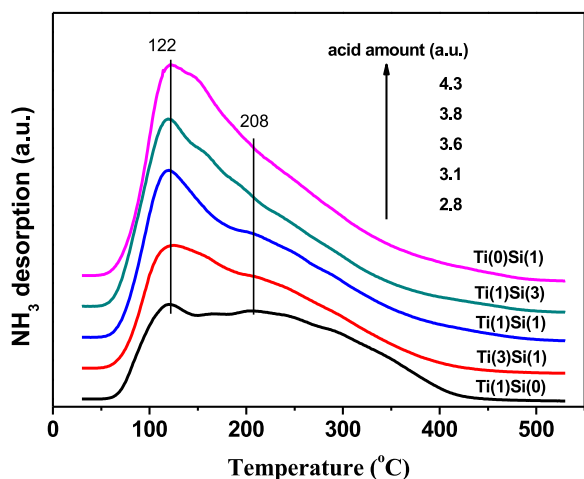


Fig. 4. NH_3 -TPD profiles of $\text{Ti}(x)\text{Si}(y)$ catalysts.

and 350 °C, wherein approximately 70% of NO_x was reduced at 350 °C even under $500,000 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$. The SO_2 resistance is carried out for 10 h at 300 °C with 500 ppm SO_2 induced to the gas flow [24]. The results reveal that the $\text{Ti}(3)\text{Si}(1)$ catalyst exhibited a favorable SO_2 tolerance at 300 °C, at which point the SCR activity decreased slightly. As soon as the SO_2 was shut down, the activity recovered to a sulfur-free scenario within 10 min. When both SO_2 and H_2O were introduced into the reactor, approximately 90% of NO_x conversion was preserved within the first 2 h, and then the activity gradually decreased with the time. Similar conclusions can also be drawn from previous studies on $\text{CeO}_2\text{-WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$ catalyst [24], wherein the loss in activity was attributed to the deposition of ammonium sulfate on the surface of the catalyst [14].

3.3. Surface acidity

The redox properties of the $\text{Ti}(x)\text{Si}(y)$ catalysts were examined using H_2 -TPR experiment (Figure S3). The results do not reveal significant differences between the catalysts. Similar findings were also observed by Galan-Fereres et al. [25]. Thus, changes in surface acidity and NO_x species in the presence of SiO_2 might be critical factors during the SCR process. The effect of the amount and strength of the acid on the activity of the catalysts in NH_3 -TPD experiments is illustrated in Fig. 4. Two peaks, observed at approximately 122 °C and 206 °C, can be attributed to the weak and strong acid sites for the $\text{Ti}(x)\text{Si}(y)$ catalysts, respectively. The integral peak area (labeled in the figure) of each catalyst, which correspond to the total acidity, increased with increasing SiO_2 loading. These results suggest that the addition of SiO_2 to TiO_2 may increase the amount of acid but does not influence the strength of the acid (as confirmed by the temperature of desorption peak).

To further distinguish between the different acid types (Lewis or Brønsted acid sites on the catalytic surfaces), in situ DRIFTS experiments were employed to study the NH_3 adsorption/desorption behavior of the catalysts. The NH_3 adsorption on the $\text{Ti}(x)\text{Si}(y)$ catalysts at 100 °C is shown in Fig. 5(a). The bands at 1148 (1315) and 1573 cm^{-1} can be attributed to the Lewis acid sites, whereas the band at 1448 cm^{-1} can be assigned to the Brønsted acid sites [26]. A broad band in the range 3000–3500 cm^{-1} were observed in the spectrum due to contributions from $\nu_{\text{as}}(\text{N-H})$, $\nu_{\text{s}}(\text{N-H})$, $2\delta_{\text{as}}(\text{H-N-H})$, $2\delta_{\text{s}}(\text{H-N-H})$ and $\delta_{\text{as}}(\text{H-N-H})$ modes of ammonia adsorbed on the Lewis acid sites [27,28]. The Lewis and Brønsted acidities were obtained by calculating the areas in the DRIFTS spectra at 100 °C. In the presence of SiO_2 , the peak at 1148 cm^{-1} disappeared, whereas a peak at 1315 cm^{-1} was observed, which increased in intensity with loading. The peak at 1448 cm^{-1} also

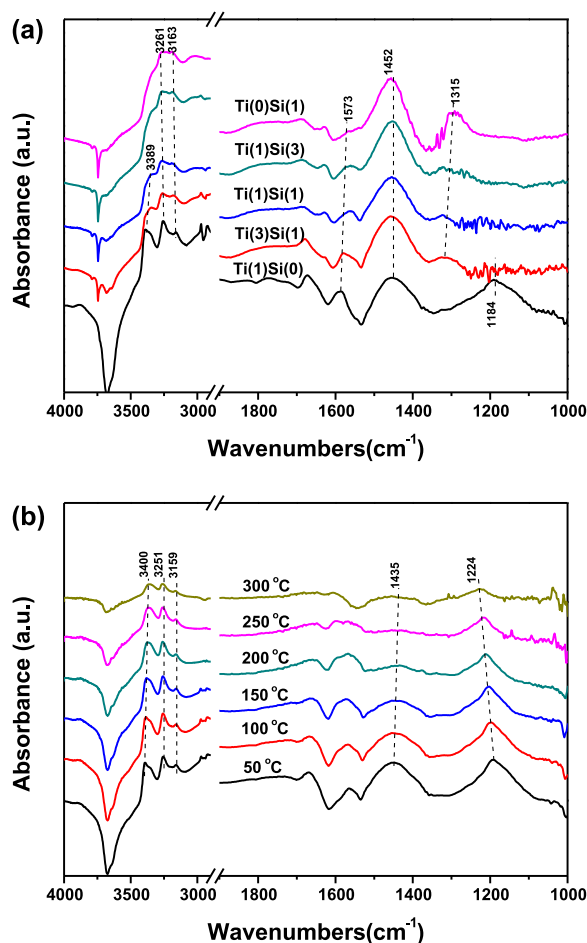


Fig. 5. DRIFTS spectra of (a) the NH_3 adsorption of $\text{Ti}(x)\text{Si}(y)$ catalysts at 100 °C and (b) the NH_3 desorption of the $\text{Ti}(1)\text{Si}(0)$ catalyst at the temperature range of 50–300 °C.

increased in intensity with increasing SiO_2 loadings. These results indicate that doping with SiO_2 results in a significant increase in the amount of Brønsted acid sites as well as the nature of the acidity (Lewis/Brønsted). To further investigate the acid strength, NH_3 desorption was performed on the $\text{Ti}(1)\text{Si}(0)$ sample in the temperature range of 50–300 °C (Fig. 5(b)). Both peak intensities due to Lewis and Brønsted acid sites decreased with the temperature, and the Brønsted acid sites exhibited lower stability compared with the Lewis acid sites: the band at 1448 cm^{-1} nearly disappeared at 300 °C, whereas the band at 1224 cm^{-1} could be still observed. Combined with the NH_3 -TPD experiments, the results reveal that SiO_2 enhances surface acidity of the catalysts, especially the number of Brønsted acid sites. In other words, more hydroxyl groups are formed on the surface of the catalyst in the presence of SiO_2 . Moreover, the stability of the Brønsted acid sites was lower than that of the Lewis acid site, which could be a possible reason for the low activity of Si-rich catalysts at high temperatures.

3.4. NO_x adsorption

According to the previous studies [29], the oxidation of NO to NO_2 may be the rate-determining step in the SCR of ceria catalysts employed at low temperatures. Tronconi et al. [30,31] referred to the promotion mechanism of NO_2 between 200 and 300 °C as “fast-SCR”, and performed extensive studies on the reaction mechanisms and roles of NO_2 . To investigate the influence of SiO_2 on the NO_x adsorption/desorption of the catalyst, NO -TPD experiments were performed on the $\text{Ti}(x)\text{Si}(y)$ samples; the results are provided

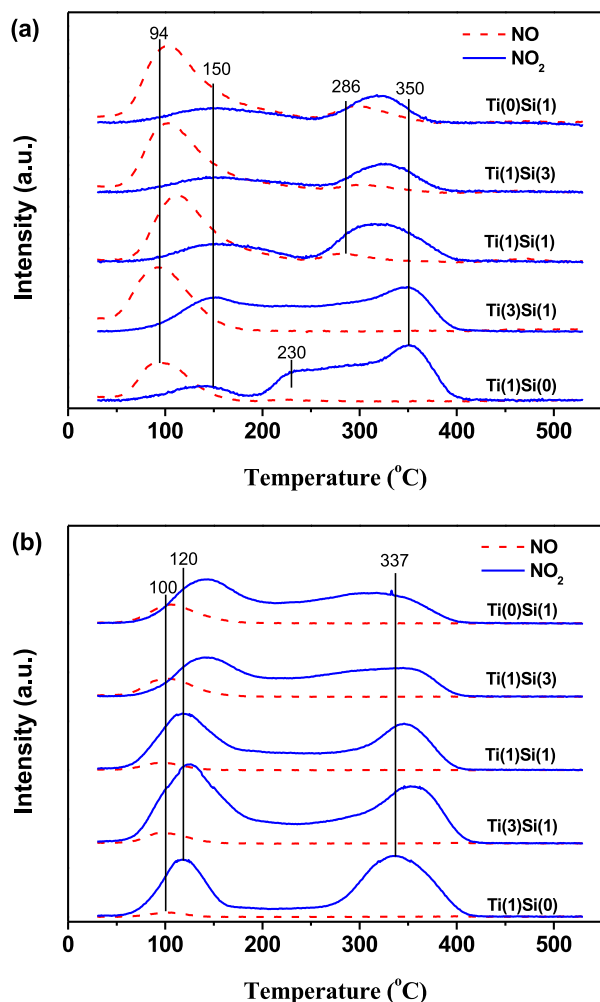


Fig. 6. (a) NO-TPD and (b) NO + O₂-TPD profiles of Ti(x)Si(y) catalysts.

in Fig. 6(a). All the samples exhibited large NO desorption peaks at approximately 100 °C, which can be attributed to the presence of nitrites on the catalytic surfaces [15]. The Si-containing catalysts exhibited higher NO desorption than the Ti(1)Si(0) catalyst, and the amount of desorbed NO also increased with SiO₂ content. The results indicate that the existence of SiO₂ could promote the surface nitrite formation of the catalysts. In the NO₂ desorption profiles of Ti(1)Si(0) and Ti(3)Si(1), two peaks were observed at 150 and 350 °C, as well as a shoulder at approximately 230 °C for the Ti(1)Si(0) sample. In contrast, all other Ti(x)Si(y) catalysts exhibited only a peak at 330 °C, which decreased with increasing SiO₂ loading. These peaks can be attributed to nitrate species wherein the N atom of the oxidized NO₂ bonds with the surface of the O atom (monodentate nitrate) or when the N atom of NO bonds with the surface adjacent to the O atoms (bridging or bidentate nitrate) [15,26]. By correlating the NO_x species assignments with the activity profiles and apparent rate constants, the increased amount of surface nitrite and nitrate species corresponds with an increase in the rate constants, which suggests that the nitrite or nitrate species might be reactive during the SCR process.

Furthermore, NO + O₂-TPD experiments are performed (Fig. 6(b)) to study the oxidation activity for the conversion of NO to NO₂ on the Ti(x)Si(y) catalysts. The results reveal that the NO₂ desorption peak areas followed the activity profiles (Fig. 6(a)), with two peaks centered at approximately 120 and 337 °C. For the Ti(3)Si(1) catalyst, only the low temperature peak exhibited

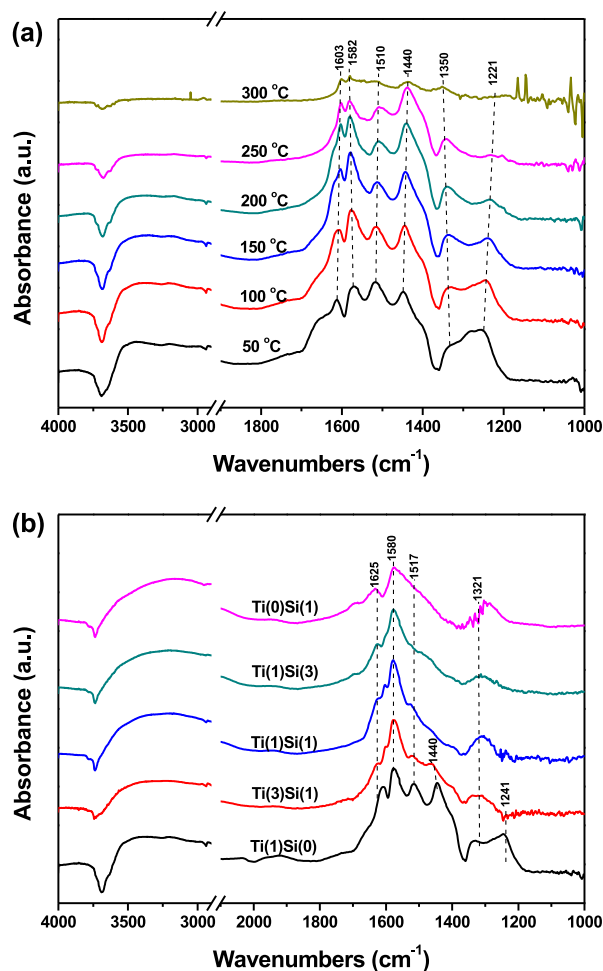


Fig. 7. DRIFTS spectra of (a) the NO_x desorption of the Ti(1)Si(0) catalyst in the temperature range of 50–300 °C and (b) the NO_x adsorption of Ti(x)Si(y) catalysts at 100 °C.

an obvious increase, which may be responsible for the increase in catalytic activity due to the presence of SiO₂.

Furthermore, the influences of nitrate must be considered and discussed based on the stability of the species. Whereas the weak bonding of NO₂ at low temperatures enhances the activity, the desorption of NO₂ at higher temperatures results in increased

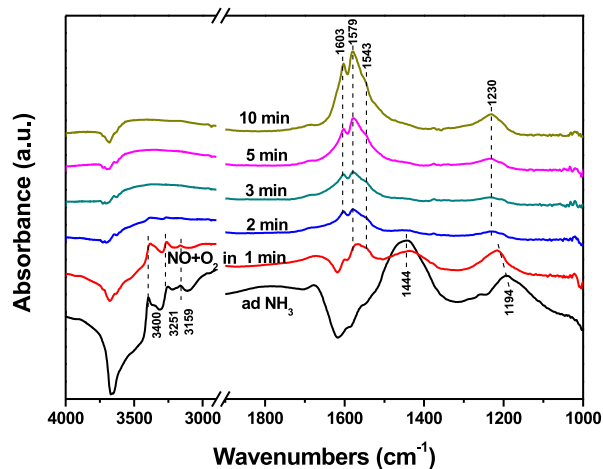


Fig. 8. DRIFTS spectra of the Ti(1)Si(0) catalyst pretreated with 500 ppm NH₃, and then exposed to 500 ppm NO and 3% O₂ at 200 °C.

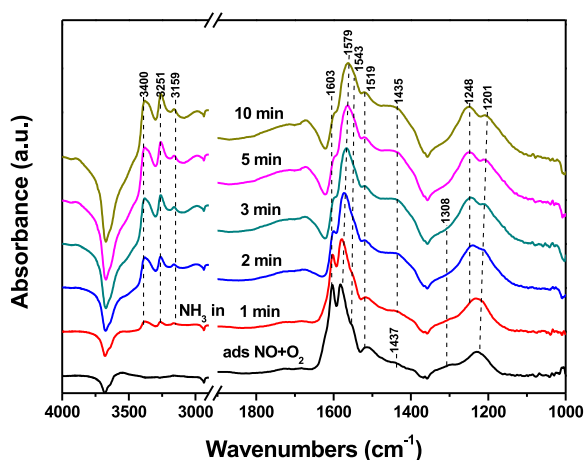


Fig. 9. DRIFTS spectra of Ti(1)Si(0) catalyst pretreated by 500 ppm NO and 3% O₂, and then exposed to 500 ppm NH₃ at 200 °C.

stability, which is unfavorable to the SCR reaction that results from occupying the active sites of the catalysts at low temperature. These species can be assigned to the bridging or bidentate nitrates based on the DRIFTS below (Fig. 7(a) for stability and Fig. 9 for reactivity). The results suggest that unstable nitrates (monodentate or adsorbed NO₂) adsorbed on the surface of the catalysts may improve the SCR reactions, whereas stable surface species (bridging or bidentate nitrate) are less active, especially in the low temperature range.

To further distinguish between the nitrate and nitrite species on the surface of the catalysts, NO + O₂ adsorption/desorption in the temperature range of 50–300 °C are performed on the Ti(1)Si(0) catalyst and further analyzed by IR spectroscopy. As shown in Fig. 7(a), the peak at 1221 cm⁻¹ is due to the presence of surface nitrites, whereas the peaks at 1440, 1510 and 1582 cm⁻¹ are due to the monodentate, bidentate and bridging nitrates, respectively. In addition, the peak at 1350 cm⁻¹ is assigned to the N₂O₂²⁻ species, which are produced by the strong reduction of nitrate or nitrite after the adsorption of NO on CeO₂. Finally, the peak at 1603 cm⁻¹ is due to the adsorbed NO₂ [26,32,33]. Nitrite, bidentate nitrate and adsorbed NO₂ content decreased with increasing temperature, whereas the bridging nitrate exhibited a slight increase in the range of 50–200 °C and then a significant decrease at 250 °C and higher temperatures. These findings can be attributed to the transformation of bidentate nitrate to a bridging nitrate at low temperatures, which both remain adsorbed on the catalyst in a stable form until approximately 300 °C. Similar results were observed with other samples (shown in Figure S4) except the Ti(0)Si(1). Fig. 7(b) provides the results from the NO_x adsorption on the Ti(x)Si(y) catalysts at 100 °C. With increasing SiO₂ loading, the band due to surface nitrites shifted to higher wavenumber, whereas the monodentate nitrate increased slightly. In addition, the peaks attributed to bidentate nitrate could no longer be observed, which may be due to the overlap of the large bridging nitrate peaks.

Based on the results above, the reactive NO_x species are nitrite, monodentate nitrate and adsorbed NO₂ species. Indeed, the bridging and bidentate nitrate species are too stable to react with NH₃ species at relative low and mediate temperature. Doping with SiO₂ might promote the presence of surface nitrite and monodentate nitrate, which would increase the SCR performance.

3.5. Reaction mechanism at 200 °C

The Ti(1)Si(0) was first pretreated with NH₃/N₂ for 1 h at 200 °C and then purged with N₂ purging. NO + O₂/N₂ was then introduced

into the IR cell and the spectra were recorded as a function of time (Fig. 8). As noted above, NH₃ species bonded to the Lewis (1194, 3000–3500 cm⁻¹) and Brønsted (1444 cm⁻¹) acid sites were observed on the surface of the Ti(1)Si(0) catalyst in the presence of NH₃. When NO + O₂ was introduced, the presence of all NH₃ species decreased significantly within 2 min. Instead of NH₃ signals, peaks attributed to nitrate were observed and remained remarkably strong after 10 min. The results indicate that both Lewis and Brønsted acid sites can participate in the SCR reaction with NO species.

To define the reactive NO_x species, the order of the gas mixture introduced to the IR cell was reversed: the sample was first treated with NO + O₂/N₂ for 1 h at 200 °C, purged with N₂ and treated with NH₃/N₂ (Fig. 9). At this temperature, the nitrate can exist in a stable form on the surface of the catalyst, resulting in a weak peak at 1294 cm⁻¹, which can be attributed to nitrites. When the NH₃ was introduced, the amount of nitrate species slightly decreased, and the nitrites disappeared. Subsequently, peaks attributed to NH₃ species were observed. The results indicate that monodentate nitrate rather than bridging or bidentate nitrate can react with the gaseous or adsorbed NH₃. The disappearance of nitrite can be attributed to the peak overlap with the Lewis acid sites at 1215 cm⁻¹ or the reaction with NH₃ species at 200 °C. The reaction mechanism for the Ti(3)Si(1) catalyst was also investigated at 200 °C by in situ IR studies (Figure S5) and the results did not reveal any new mechanism pathway in comparison with the Ti(1)Si(0).

4. Conclusion

Whereas the doping of CeO₂–WO₃/TiO₂ catalyst with SiO₂ increased the reaction rate at relatively low temperatures, excess SiO₂ decreased the catalytic activity at higher temperatures. From a physical perspective, the presence of SiO₂ increased the BET surface area of the catalysts, promoting the dispersion quality of the system, rather than varying the crystal structure of CeO₂ and WO₃ on support. From a chemical perspective, the presence of SiO₂ exhibited a weak influence on the reducibility of the catalysts and also dramatically increased the number of Brønsted acid sites (key acid sites at low temperature). The comparison of NO_x adsorption/desorption properties of Ti(x)Si(y) catalysts revealed that the quantities of nitrite, monodentate nitrates and adsorbed NO₂ correlated well with the SCR activity. Finally, the Ti(1)Si(0) catalyst was used to study the SCR mechanism, and the same behavior was observed with SiO₂ doping. At 200 °C, both Lewis and Brønsted acid sites can react with the nitrite, monodentate nitrate and adsorbed NO₂ species.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2013.04.030>.

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